Franz Rothenbacher

Measuring Social Reporting Intensity in Industrialized Countries: An Exercise in the Sociology of Knowledge

Since the beginning of the 90s, a new wave of social reporting has appeared in those European countries which did not participate in the first wave of the 1970s. Nevertheless, large differences remain with respect to reporting intensity, regularity and models of social reporting. Societal characteristics still influence the way and degree of national social reporting.

The Four Main National Approaches to Social Reporting

The activities of international organisations have strongly influenced the implementation of social reporting in several European countries. Nevertheless, there are tremendous differences between and variations of the forms of national social reporting in Europe. These national differences have also been shaped by the historical requirements existing in these countries when they developed national social reporting, by differing statistical traditions, and by differing ways of solving problems of statistical organisation: in France, for instance, the statistical office was given an economic research institute and later on a sociological research institute as well; the same is true for Luxembourg, concerning the first point; in Norway, representative of Scandinavia, the statistical office has taken over nearly all tasks of social reporting and publishes a regular social report; in Sweden, a division for social reporting was established within the SCB. It must be said here that national styles of social reporting certainly exist in the individual countries, but often other styles of social reporting coexist. In any case, it is possible to construct some models or types of national social reporting within Europe:

1. The resource approach
2. The quality of life approach
3. The living conditions approach

The typology of social reporting, as presented in Table 1, is similar to Esping-Andersen’s (1990) typology of welfare states, as it is possible to distinguish three types of welfare research in Western Europe which not completely, but to some degree, fit into the welfare state regime types. Nordic level of living research is thus related to the social-democratic welfare state regime, continental quality of life research partly fits into the social insurance type of welfare state, and the living conditions approach fits into the liberal model of welfare state or the Southern “residual” model of welfare state. A clear co-variation of both dimensions can only be found in the Nordic countries, while the variations are higher for the other two types. Living standard research is a fourth type of social reporting. It is assumed that this is the predominant research tradition in Eastern European countries, where social reporting centred on the basic needs of the citizens, such as food, housing, work and health. It is assumed that this tradition will also continue to exist during the transition phase of these countries.

...continued on page 2
(1) „Level of Living“ Research in the Nordic Welfare States

There is a close relationship between the development of the Scandinavian type of social reporting and the welfare state development in Scandinavia. The Nordic welfare states developed late but very fast under social-democratic governments and belong to the „universalistic model“. The most characteristic feature of the Scandinavian approach is the importance placed on individual resources, the things a person should have. Individual resources should be distributed as equally as possible. In this respect, special importance is placed on vertical redistribution, and less to horizontal distribution between different forms of living or family types. The goal of equality between the sexes is of utmost importance in the Scandinavian approach.

In order to measure living conditions effectively and to evaluate such a governmental welfare policy it is inevitable to introduce a comprehensive social reporting system as a public task. The introduction of a public system of social reporting was furthered by the long Scandinavian tradition of official statistics - regular statistical records were introduced as early as the 18th century - and the positive attitude of the Nordic people towards official statistics. Thus, the first protests against personal identification numbers are unknown in Scandinavia; they allow for statistical analyses of data stemming from different administrative registers, and the money that would otherwise be needed for data collection can be saved.

It is typical for the organisation of social reporting in Scandinavia that the statistical offices are the organisational focus of social reporting. They carry out the surveys on living conditions, analyse the data and publish the results in their own statistical series. The close cooperation between the statistical office and the sociological research institute (mostly the only one) is typical (see Sweden and Denmark). Combined with a rather well established system of special statistical surveys, such as surveys on time use, income, household budgets, family formation and fertility, health, etc., which are also organised by the statistical office, it becomes possible to regularly publish national social reports. This system is for instance predominant in Norway. In Sweden, the statistical office publishes a series on social reporting. In Denmark, Danmarks Statistik collaborates closely with the national social research institute, which is under the tutelage of the Ministry for Social Affairs, and is at the same time the main actor in the field of social reporting. In Finland – where the statistical system is strongly decentralised - Statistics Finland publishes the results of the Survey on Living Conditions (Vogel 1997; Uusitalo 1994).

(2) Quality of Life Research on the Continent

Based on the model „United States“, a tradition of quality of life research was established in Germany, Austria, Switzerland and the Netherlands, which combines objective and subjective elements and thus emphasises both dimensions. Besides objective living conditions, subjectively perceived evaluations of individuals with respect to their objective living conditions are taken into account. The subjective reflection of objective living conditions on the individual level is thus incorporated into this research tradition. Subjective well-being is not only assessed by using a summary measure as the overall life satisfaction, but also with respect to satisfaction regarding specific living domains, as the income situation or health status. Thus, by combining the subjective and objective dimension, a theoretical understanding of the dynamics of well-being is enhanced. In those European countries where it was possible to establish quality of life research, a certain division of labour between official statistics and university research evolved, with the former concentrating much more on objective living conditions, while the latter predominantly dealing with subjective well-being or the perception of objective living conditions.

(3) Living Conditions Approach

The third approach can be called „living conditions approach“. The underlying theoretical concepts neither come from the Nordic resource approach nor from research on subjective well-being. The main point of orientation is rather the component approach, that means that mainly objective data stemming from different statistical sources are presented in a systematic arrangement of several living domains. The main actor in the field of social reporting in those countries is the statistical office, therefore subjective data are normally not included in official social reports. Social reports are necessary for several reasons. One reason is to present results from often very numerous social surveys. The second one is to organise statistics which partly come from numerous public bodies...
in a coherent form for being used by government departments themselves and the wider public.

This living conditions approach is the most widespread approach in Western and Southern Europe. While Western European countries, such as Great Britain and France, developed continuous reporting systems very early, the development in Southern Europe was retarded. Therefore a distinction can be made between Western Europe and the Latin Rim concerning this approach.

a) Western Europe

In France, social reporting has a strong position. Again, this is related to the state organisation. France as an extremely centralised state introduced a centralised social reporting, which is carried out nearly exclusively by national institutions. The central actor in France is the national statistical office (INSEE) which has combined since its foundation in 1946 statistics and economic research in order to enhance the scientific use of the statistics collected. Economic research at the INSEE was supplemented in 1980 by a division for sociological research (Begué 1981).

In France it has therefore been possible to put economic and sociological research under one roof together with official statistics. The advantageous impacts of this organisational strategy are demonstrated by the main product of French official social reporting, the „Données Sociales“. The studies included in this publication have a very analytic approach. They are oriented towards research questions and are innovative in methodical and material terms.

In Great Britain, the statistical system was strongly decentralised – at least until recently. Not only the individual parts of the country of the United Kingdom, such as Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland and England, have their own statistical offices (territorial differentiation), but the statistical system is also fragmented with regard to functions. Until the formation of the „Office for National Statistics“, two main institutions were responsible for official statistics, the Central Statistical Office (CSO) and the Office for Population Censuses and Surveys (OPCS). Furthermore, the part of statistics remaining with the ministries is still rather large. The introduction of the main product of official social reporting, in Great Britain, the „Social Trends“, was inter alia a result of the decentralisation and thus intricacy of the statistical system, with the intention to present a synthesis of the most important statistical information for state administration and the public. „Social Trends“ was also published for Wales. The characteristics of the statistical systems made a stronger integration of social science and official statistics possible. This becomes obvious not only with respect to „Social Trends“, but also in other fields of statistical reporting, where a strong influence of the social sciences prevails (see “Population Trends“, e.g.)

The „consociational democracies“ of Belgium, the Netherlands and Switzerland do not reveal coherence concerning their social reporting systems. If the thesis that social reporting and “welfare stateness” do co-variate closely is correct, then coherence in social reporting cannot be expected in these countries. Due to the fragmentation of these countries concerning religion and language and the strong federalisation, centralised social reporting cannot be expected to have a strong position. The Netherlands seem to be an exception to this rule. Due to their strongly developed welfare state they have established a strong position of social reporting. They have implemented a regular social report at the Social and Cultural Planning Office (SCP), they conduct a living situation survey (Leefsituatiesurvey) and have a large publication system on social reporting. The Netherlands, however, represent a specific type of welfare state which is - in contrast to the Nordic type - not service-oriented, but provides overwhelmingly fiscal welfare and direct cash transfers. This could be the reason for the relatively big importance of surveys substituting administrative statistics.

In Belgium, national social reporting could not be established, neither at the national statistical office, nor at the Planning Bureau. Early attempts turned out not to be permanent. The further federalisation of the country has obviously made national social reporting more difficult; on the other hand it made reporting for the language communities easier. In the Flemish Community social reporting on the family and population (C.B.G.S.) and social reporting on social policy impacts (CSP, Antwerp) could be established. On the level of the nation state the national statistical office holds a rather weak position due to the strongly decentralised Belgian statistical system. Thus, essential parts of official statistics remained at the ministries, the numerous social security bodies and other organisations. This probably renders national social reporting highly difficult.

In Switzerland, social reporting developed rather late and has not been institutionalised so far. In the early 1980s a system of social indicators was developed; however, the project was cancelled due to resource restrictions, and social reporting was not continued for some years. A Swiss national social report has not been published by the statistical office, and a national level of living survey or a quality of life survey have not been implemented in Switzerland. Nevertheless, in the last years specialised social surveys, such as the Labour Force Survey or a health survey, were introduced. Switzerland is now on its way to modernising data production by introducing regular social reporting through social surveys, a social indicator system and regular social reports. The late and slow development of social reporting in Switzerland can be attributed to the specific type of liberal welfare state, keeping the state sector low, where social expenditures and therefore also government social services play only a limited role. In the system of welfare production associations, markets and families play a comparatively important role. Social reporting in such a liberal welfare state probably faces other organisational problems than it does in a
developed welfare state. Furthermore, due to undeveloped public services, which could be monitored by administrative statistics, it would have been necessary to rely mainly on surveys in order to measure informal welfare production by the private sector.

In Luxembourg, social reporting developed by the end of the 1980s. First results of this institutionalisation became evident in the 1990s. On the organisational level the statistical office (STATEC), the main social science research institute (CEPS/Instead) and the General Inspection for Social Security (IGSS) co-operate in order to improve information on social conditions in Luxembourg. These three institutions together have published since 1994 resp. 1995 two information bulletins on the demographic and social development in Luxembourg. With respect to data production, the situation has improved a great deal due to the introduction of the Luxembourg panel (P.S.E.L.L.). This panel for the first time allows for analyses on the income situation, income inequality and poverty in Luxembourg. The panel furthermore allows for a comprehensive analysis of the living conditions of households and families in Luxembourg. This way Luxembourg has joined the group of countries with a well-established social reporting system. As a third element of a well-established social reporting system, a first social report in Luxembourg was published in 1997, which was the start of the social sciences, social reporting was also slowly established. All in all, the take-off of social reporting in these countries (with the exception of Italy) only started in the 1990s. This demonstrates that the introduction of social reporting requires a tremendous infrastructural input which often requires a previous modernisation of the statistical system.

Thus, official statistics of Portugal was basically reformed in 1986 in order to comply with the statistical requirements after Portugal’s EC membership in 1986. Attempts to establish official social reporting were only made after the statistics reform of 1986 – a first social report „Portugal Social“ appeared in 1992 (INE 1992). The Institute for Social Sciences of the Lisbon University (Instituto de Ciências Sociais (ICS)) published in 1996 a „Report on the Social Situation, 1960-95“ as book and disk (Barreto 1996). The time series data can also be accessed via the internet homepage of the institute and will be regularly updated. Time series are presented for 10 living domains.

In Italy, private foundations, as CENSIS, e.g., were the first ones to engage in social reporting. CENSIS (1995) has published annual (!) social reports since 1967. Additionally, a shorter English version is produced. The national statistical office (Istituto Nazionale di Statistica - ISTAT) has since the late 1970s produced various titles which are similar to a social report, but the main input only came by the end of the 1980s. The probably most important project of the last years was ISTAT’s implementation of the „Indagine multispetale sulle famiglie“. Social reports also exist for some provinces or for specific sectors, such as demography. The Italian situation – according to a national expert – seems to be rather fragmented.

In Greece, social reporting has only developed in the 1990s. Traditionally, official statistics in Greece (National Statistical Service of Greece (NSSGI)) has a relatively weak position and suffers from too little acceptance in the population, low wages for employees, and therefore shortage of staff and insufficient productivity and „timeliness“. Under these conditions official statistics was not and still is not in a situation to take the lead in social reporting in the country. Thus, the main statistical instruments for social reporting in Greece, such as well-established social statistics with a plurality of social surveys and comprehensive surveys, does not exist. The national social research institute (EKKE) could not and cannot fill this gap. After the reorientation of research priorities in the 1990s, EKKE is now systemically establishing social reporting. Thus, the statistical compendium „Recent Social Trends in Greece“ was compiled (EKKE, forthcoming). Furthermore, EKKE plans to produce a data base with social indicators. While social research in Greece was dominated by an anthropological research tradition in the past, the focal point has meanwhile shifted to the more „modern“ fields of social reporting (Diamandouros 1997).

In Spain (see box), the first „Panorámica Social“ dates from 1975, and as late as 1994 (INE 1994) a second edition appeared. In 1991 the first edition of „Indicadores Sociales“ was published (INE 1991). However, private foundations, such as the Fundación FOESSA or research centres, have published sociological reports since 1966. The decentralisation of the country as a result of the introduction of the autonomous communities („Comunidades Autónomas“) has not only led to the production of social reports for various of these autonomous communities, but also to separate statistical offices in some of these. Social reporting also spread in the big cities, as municipal social reports for Madrid and Barcelona, e.g., prove.

Ireland did no develop regular social reporting, although in 1979 a prototype of a social report („Towards a social report“, by the National Economic and Social Council (NESC)) was published. But this...
Social Reports in Spain

(a) The Fundación FOESSA was founded in 1965 with the aim to present systematic information on the social situation of Spain. To this end the Foundation published, beginning in 1967, 4 sociological reports on Spain (Informe sociológicos, in 1967, 1970, 1975, 1980-83). The fifth report was published in 1994 (Juárez 1994). These reports give a comprehensive picture of Spanish society and can be considered to be the “main” social reports on Spain.

(2) The Centro de Investigaciones Sociológicas (CIS) was established in 1977 as an autonomous state agency attached to the Office of the Presidency and replaced its predecessor, the Instituto de la Opinión Pública (IOP), founded in 1963. The main task of CIS is to study the Spanish society and its evolution, mainly by conducting public opinion surveys. Thus far the Centre has conducted over 1,200 surveys which have been organised in a database that is open for potential users. CIS organises such surveys at all stages of the research process, from questionnaire design to publication of the results. The results are published in series of monographic studies. Furthermore, CIS publishes the main social science journal in Spain, the REV, introduced in 1978. CIS functions as a national representative in international research programmes and conducts the national surveys, e.g. the Spanish Family and Fertility survey of the United Nations ECE.

(3) The Centro de Estudios Avanzados en Ciencias Sociales (CEACS) was established in 1987 and forms part of the Instituto Juan March de Estudios e Investigaciones. Its main task is to carry out postgraduate research and teaching in the field of the social sciences. Fundamental research is undertaken on the institutional framework for economic modernisation, the sociological and political implications of regionalisation and internationalisation, and problems regarding the redefinition of the welfare state. Research concentrates on Europe as a geographical and cultural entity. The Centre publishes Estudios/Worlking Papers and Theses.

(4) The Institute for Advanced Social Studies (Instituto de Estudios Sociales Avanzados (IESA)) was created in 1988 as a research centre within the Spanish National Research Council (Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas (CSIC)). Its main aim consists in undertaking research in social and political sciences in a comparative perspective. Research focuses on four topics: social transformations and the welfare state; interrelationships between science, technology and society; problems of political organisation (convergence, federalisation, etc.); analysis of social participation and economic development. The institute publishes working papers and monographs.

(5) The Centro de Investigaciones sobre la Realidad Social (CIRES) was founded in 1990. Its main objective is to stimulate and multiply the quality of sociological investigation at Spanish and foreign universities and research centres. CIRES organises each year several investigations and distributes the data on diskettes to national and foreign research centres. Each year a voluminous report on the social reality in Spain (La Realidad Social en España) is published. CIRES has introduced its own social indicators system.

project was discontinued. Thus, a series of regular social reports or a socio-statistical compendium is not produced in Ireland, although a great deal of research on topics related to social reporting is undoubtedly carried out, mainly by the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI), the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) and the Central Statistical Office (CSO). The CSO, for example, did not organize a level of living survey, but organized a statistical database storing socio-economic macro data and indicators.

Summary: The late and – altogether – weak development of social reporting in Southern Europe can on the one hand be attributed to the belated democratic development in three of the four countries considered here. Additionally, the weak development of the welfare state is important (when measured by the proportion of the GDP, social expenditures in Southern Europe are below the average). Other actors in the field of welfare production, such as the family and relatives or other intermediary associations, play a more important role by comparison. Reporting on the contributions of these actors of welfare production to the population’s welfare is much more difficult in comparison than to produce administrative statistics based on a publicly administered social security scheme. The resistance of citizens to the investigation of familial and other transfers in these residual welfare states will probably be much more difficult to overcome.

The Southern European countries did not develop an explicit ideology of welfare research, be it politics of redistribution, or be it extensive research on subjective welfare. The approach of the Southern European countries depends far more on available data and therefore on the material provided by official statistics, because official statistics normally only provides information on material living conditions due to its orientation towards objective statistics. Only empirical social research has led to a partial correction of a predominantly objective social reporting.
(4) Living Standard Research in East European Transition Countries

In the East European transition countries the living standard research which was created during the socialist phase was more or less maintained. Since 1945, the East European countries have been permanently confronted with basic economic problems to guarantee the basic standard of living of the population. For this reason this type of social reporting will be labelled living standard research here, which differs strongly from the concepts of level of living research and quality of life research. Living standard research is oriented only towards elementary and objective living conditions, and not towards topics such as the subjective measurement of life satisfaction or the measurement of vertical redistribution ("distribution of shortage"). In the socialist countries of Eastern Europe, until the collapse of the socialist systems, quality of life research in the Western sense and level of living research of the Scandinavian type could not evolve. Social reporting developed mainly and nearly exclusively in the National Statistical Offices on the basis of only few main social statistical investigations. These main surveys were: regular surveys on household budgets and surveys on time use. Besides the population censuses, essential elements of social statistics were developed from administrative statistics, as the whole labour statistics, e.g.

Table 2: Introduction of Social Reporting and Welfare State Regimes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/Social reporting activity</th>
<th>Social report or socio-statistical compendium</th>
<th>Comprehensive level of living or quality of life survey</th>
<th>Journal on well-being</th>
<th>Social indicator system</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>1986</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1974</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Before 1977</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average year for the liberal model</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>1976, 1989</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>1977</td>
<td>1978, 1989</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average year for the Scandinavian model without Iceland</td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>1974</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1974</td>
<td>1974, 1989</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1977</td>
<td>1978, 1989</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average year for the continental model (without Luxembog.)</td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average year for the Latin Rim</td>
<td>1985</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugoslavia</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average year for Eastern Europe</td>
<td>after 1990 (est.)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: NA = not available. – est. = estimated.

Explaining Quantitative Differences in Social Reporting

Concerning the relationship between welfare state regimes and type of social reporting in European welfare states, the assumption could be made that welfare stateness and the importance of social reporting are interrelated. The hypothesis can be formulated that the higher the degree of welfare stateness, the higher the degree of institutionalisation of social reporting. In order to test this hypothesis I have tried to collect data on the introduction of four types of social reporting activities in Table 2. They are:

1) Year of introduction of a social report or of a socio-statistical compendium
2) Year of introduction of a comprehensive level of living or quality of life survey
3) Year of introduction of a special journal on social well-being
4) Year of introduction of a social indicator system.

Furthermore, countries have been grouped according to their welfare state type (cf. Esping-Andersen 1990). One can distinguish between five welfare state models:

1) The liberal model with UK, USA, Canada, Ireland and Australia.
2) The Scandinavian social-
democratic welfare state model with Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Finland (Stephens 1995).

3) The continental corporatist social insurance model with Germany, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Austria, Switzerland and Luxembourg.

4) The “Latin Rim” of Southern Europe, which by some authors, such as Ferrera (1996), is conceived as a special type of welfare state, but by others as, e.g., Katrougalos (1996) included in the continental model.

5) The former socialist East European countries which still are in the process of transition.

Unfortunately, it was difficult to collect information on the years when these types of activities in the field of social reporting first started, and – far more frequently – such activities did not exist at all. Thus, only for social reports it is possible to calculate the mean year of introduction for the country cluster. The results are: in the countries belonging to the liberal model a social report was introduced earliest, that means in 1973. In Eastern Europe several countries have not published a social report to date, but it can be estimated that the mean year of introduction will be after 1990. Therefore, these results do not support the above mentioned hypothesis that a relationship exists between welfare stateness and the early introduction of social reporting.

In order to construct a better index of intensity of social reporting, the following procedure was found. An intensity score of social reporting is defined, consisting of the three dimensions: (1) period of introduction of a social report, (2) availability of all four types of social reporting as in Table 3, and (3) regularity of social reporting. The first dimension “period of introduction of a social report” is subdivided into 6 time periods with scores ranging from 1-6; the earlier the introduction of a social report the higher the score. The second dimension “availability of all four types of social reporting” has scores ranging from 0-4, from none of these types to all of these types of social reporting. The third dimension “regularity of social reporting” has only three values, 1 for “irregular”, 2 for “annual” and 3 for “several times a year”. The summary score is built by adding the score value of all three dimensions for each country.

The results of this measurement of intensity of social reporting can be seen in Figure 1. The results have some plausibility, as we see that Sweden scores highest, but Germany comes second, which is a result of the fact that all types of social reporting are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Period of introduction of social report</td>
<td>1995-99</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1990-94</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1980-84</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1975-79</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1970-74</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Availability of all types</td>
<td>Each type = 1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Regularity</td>
<td>Irregular</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Annual</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Several times a year</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: Intensity Score of Social Reporting
produced in Germany. But all in all a North-South divide also with respect to social reporting intensity becomes evident, with the Nordic countries having the highest intensity, most of the continental countries being in the middle field, and the South and East European countries having the lowest social reporting intensity. As can be seen, there is regularity but also much variation.

If the question is posed again whether any relationship between social reporting intensity and degree of welfare stateness exists, we can correlate both dimensions, “welfare stateness” measured by the proportion of social protection expenditures in per cent of GDP, we receive Figure 2. Now, in contrast to Table 2, we find a clear relationship between both dimensions in Europe. Welfare stateness and social reporting are therefore interrelated, and we can predict from this result that if welfare stateness proceeds in Southern Europe, social reporting will probably proceed there as well.

Y = 1.698X + 15.006
R² = 0.528

Notes
1 This point is made by Desrosières 1989.
2 The situation is similar in Spain. Only in Greece a basic reform has still to be awaited.

References
International Institute of Administrative Sciences (IIAS) – Institut International des Sciences Administratives (IIASA), Brussels

The IIAS is “an International Association with Scientific Purpose” whose seat is in Brussels. It is the sole organization at the international level which is devoted to the study of public administration and, in the field of comparative studies, it alone provides a forum for presenting and discussing practical experience and theoretical analyses of specialists of public administration from all regions of the world, from all cultures. As such, it has been at the crossroads of administrative development for many decades. The IIAS is thus devoted to all questions which address contemporary public administration at the national and international levels.

The Oldest of the Specialized Institutions

Established in 1930 by the International Congress of Administrative Sciences held in Madrid, the IIAS is the first of the specialized institutions to affirm, worldwide, its scientific willingness to resolve the problems and challenges facing national and international administrations. The Institute’s history demonstrates its capacity to respond to the needs of the industrialized countries as well as to those of the countries in transition and the developing countries.

The vocation of IIAS has provided the Institute with its principle characteristics which are today, as in the early days of its development, its major attributes:

- its internationality without reservation,
- its absolute neutrality,
- its varied professional community,
- its permanent adaption to a world in continuous change.

Indeed, owing to these attributes, the IIAS is a unique organization whose experience is both extensive and impressive.

A Remarkable Geographic and Professional Diversity

Membership in IIAS is largely open – geographically, scientifically and professionally. There are specifically five membership categories. These are: States, governmental international organizations, national sections, corporate members, and individual members.

The IIAS is represented in approximately one hundred countries belonging to all regions and cultures of the world.

To better cover this diversity, without neglecting either specificities or the need to strengthen relations, the IIAS has established two Specialized Associations and a Regional Group:

- the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA),
- the International Association of Information and Documentation in Public Administration (IAIDPA),
- the European Group of Public Administration and Development (EGPA).

At the Centre of a Worldwide Network

The IIAS works closely with the major international organizations. Since its establishment, the IIAS has been one of the United Nations’ earliest and faithful partners. As a recent example, the IIAS participated actively in the work of the Technical Committee set up by the United Nations to prepare the first General Assembly on Public Administration and Development.


The IIAS has privileged relations with numerous international and regional organizations and is developing, to the greatest extent possible, its programs and activities in synergy with them.

In addition, the IIAS has set up an extensive file of experts in administration in all fields related to public administration as either science and/or discipline. The Institute thus has an exceptional network of highly qualified and experienced persons having most varied responsibilities, the scope of which covers the entire field of public administration and administrative systems worldwide. Experts may, without restriction, be included in the file providing that they have the competence required and request to be listed (submitted with request: a detailed curriculum vitae).

What Does the IIAS Do?

Aim

The purpose of the IIAS is to promote:

- the development of the administrative sciences,
- the improvement of the institutional development of the economy and of public sector management,
- the better operation of public administrative agencies,
- the improvement of administrative methods and techniques,
- the progress of international administration.

Objectives

To fulfill these tasks, the IIAS has set the following objectives:

- to bring together researchers in administrative sciences, specialists of public law as well as practitioners of public administration, public sector management and institutional development, making IIAS a meeting place where knowledge and progress may be disseminated;
- to cover the study of the administrative phenomenon in its full context and in all regions of the world with a specific accent on: the interfaces between administration and development; the innovations required to meet the rapidly changing needs of contemporary public administration;
- to contribute to making known innovative administrative experiences; to promote the latest
knowledge and experience in the administrative sciences; and thus to support comparative approaches and methods;
• to organize scientific programmes with a view to producing conclusions and proposals capable of being used by academics, policy decision makers and administrators;
• to position the IIAS in synergy with the objectives of the major international and regional organizations concerned with public administration, public sector management and institutional development; to be for these organizations an instrument of reflection, coordination, evaluation and follow-up;
• to prepare useful diagnostics for international organizations to assist them in launching their projects and to contribute to the success of these projects by providing specific information and training activities, notably in determined fields and for a targeted public (for example, a seminar for higher civil servants, etc.).

These ambitious tasks require that a scientific programme be defined and followed by all, a programme to be evaluated and renewed to meet needs and demands which are constantly changing.

The scientific programme is truly a basic pillar of IIAS. It is the cornerstone of its activities.

Scientific Programme
While focusing resolutely on the future, the IIAS scientific programme integrates the major challenges confronting contemporary administrations and States during this period of rapid change and major transformations.

→ The topics of research relate to: the present state of administrative agencies, the most recent knowledge about changes and experiments in progress, the perspectives of development in a comparative context;

→ Research results are produced independently, without the constraints of administrative culture and practices, imperatives of decision makers, exigencies of academics;

→ The research seeks to result in practical, useful conclusions for practitioners or useful theoretical models for academics.

The IIAS is thus
• a place of excellence for comparative high-level research,
• a privileged place for exchanges and information that benefit all countries with regard to:
  • daily administrative practices,
  • reform actions,
  • development of their research,
  • adaptation to new international data.

1. Qualities and Means
To attain its objectives and fulfill its purpose, the Institute has intrinsic qualities which are, indeed, its major, and often unique, attributes for carrying out its scientific programme:
• Its internationality, bringing together the technologically advanced countries, the countries in transition, and the developing countries.
• Its neutrality, the guarantee of its objectivity, privileging no particular ideology, experience or administrative system.
• Its mixed professional community, convening academics and practitioners of administration, decision makers and researchers, civil servants and administrators with varied educational backgrounds and training.
• Its flexibility of action, making possible rapid decisions and interventions, lightened procedures, free choice of experts, minimal costs. The framework of the IIAS Scientific Programme is not restrained.
• Its field, the administrative phenomenon within its full context and environment: organization and means; actions and relations (internal/external, notably with regard to public/citizens); continuity and change; local, national, and international levels; combined juridical, economic and managerial approaches.
• Its position, in synergy with the other international organizations involved in political, economic and social fields (OECD, World Bank, European Commission, UNDP, UNESCO); in consultation with all institutions devoted, either in part or in full, to the administrative sciences and public administration.

Its means of action are diversified, in particular:
• Its Specialized Associations and Regional Group, developing permanent study groups and follow-up developments in their specific fields.
• Its International and Annual Conferences and Congresses.
• Its Working Groups, comprised of 10 to 15 members representing a variety and balance of countries, professions and experiences, in relation to the needs of the study, managed by a Rapporteur selected expressly for the task, responsible for carrying out a comparative study on a specific theme to cover a period of 2 or 3 years and resulting in a publication.
• Its network of experts, highly qualified and experienced, assuming the most varied kinds of responsibilities and covering the whole of the administrative field.
• Its Documentation and Information Service, capable of providing any documentation and reference sources required to respond to requests for information; in a position to prepare information files on subjects to be examined by experts or working groups.
• Its publications and its Review, the IIAS and its Specialised Associations publish both studies developed by their respective working groups and the proceedings of their international meetings, the International Review of Administrative Sciences, a specialized journal concerned with public administration and
the administrative sciences, is published quarterly in English, French and Arabic. It includes comparative studies and an important selected and annotated bibliography.

2. Pledge of Performance

A choice of relevant research themes:

The studies carried out by the Institute and those now in progress are the proof of a constantly diversified, renewed, as well as comparative and multidimensional approach to problems of public administrative agencies and their development.

Research themes in progress and to come:

A. Transition
   • Administrative aspects of transition economies
   • Administrative aspects of political transition
   • Implications for national and local administration of globalization and internationalization
   • Innovations in international administration
   • Impact of new technologies on administration

B. Law
   • Administrative transparency
   • New regulations and means of control
   • Changes in the law at the end of the twentieth century
   • Judicial intervention in the political process

C. Sectoral policies
   • Management of multicultural societies
   • Women in public administration
   • Public administration and the social sectors
   • Management in major cities

Themes of the Major Meetings:


1997, Quebec Round Table, “Estates General of Public Administration: the changing world of government: How far have we come? Where are we headed?”

How is the IIAS Managed?

Its constituent bodies:

• The Council of Administration, entrusted with determining the orientation of IIAS activities,
• The Executive Committee, entrusted with the management and control of IIAS affairs,
• The Research Advisory Council, whose task is to propose to the Executive Committee the principle themes relative to the Major Meetings, as well as to coordinate, orientate and evaluate the scientific activities of IIAS and its Specialized Associations.

The IIAS also has in Brussels its Permanent Administrative Services which are comprised of a streamlined team headed by the Director General. The latter is responsible for drawing up and implementing the activity programme of the Institute and coordinating all activities undertaken by it.

An ad hoc Scientific Committee (7 members, of a very high scientific level) assist the Director General with his line of action, choices and evaluations.

The IIAS is an example of non-bureaucratic administration. It operates with a limited administrative team and annual budget. Its financial resources are derived mainly from the contributions/subscriptions of its members and, to a lesser extent, from research contracts and subsidies.

Its streamlined structures and freedom of action underlie the dynamism of IIAS and correspond well with its purpose.

Who Can Become a Member of IIAS?

Adherence to IIAS is open to:

• Any State;
• Any governmental international organization established by a Treaty and comprised at least in part of Member States of IIAS;
• “National Sections”, groups of professionally qualified individuals, in member or non-member countries of IIAS, interested in the objectives of IIAS and desirous of working closely with it;
• “Corporate Members”, institutions or associations duly set up having activities in the field of public administration on the national, international, or regional levels;
• “Individual Members”, persons well known for their scientific or professional activity in the administrative field, from non-member countries of IIAS which do not have a National Section.

How to Become a Member

Any candidate wishing to become a member must write an official letter requesting adherence to IIAS and agreeing to comply with the Statutes, notably to pay a contribution/subscription fee determined by a regulation drawn up by the Council of Administration which takes into account the candidate’s membership category.

Approval of membership by the Council of Administration, upon the proposal of the Executive Committee, is required for: States and governmental international organizations, National Sections in a non-Member State. The Executive Committee’s approval of membership suffices for: National Sections in a Member State, Corporate Members and Individual Members. Additional information may be obtained from the IIAS.

Services Rendered by IIAS to its Members

The IIAS offers many services, free-of-charge or at preferential rates, to...
its members in good standing. Some examples are:

IIAS publications can be received free of charge or at preferential rates by its members in good standing.

IIAS publications are received free of charge by the States, international organizations and National Sections, which likewise receive a quarterly circular. The publications are offered at reduced rates to the other members.

All members receive: a free subscription to the International Review of Administrative Sciences (Quarterly) and the Newsletter (three times per year).

Also accessible free of charge: bibliographic research, the use of the IIAS Documentation Centre.

Preferential rates are given to all members with regard to registration fees of Major Meetings of the Institute.

The members of IIAS have priority when participating in Working Groups, Major Meetings (Rapporteurs in particular), seminars, internships and consultancy activities. Obtaining scholarships for study trips or other financial means may likewise be supported by the IIAS for the members of some countries (developing, in transition).

As members of IIAS are informed first and most rapidly of IIAS activities/projects and new developments in the international administrative community, they may, either together or individually, fully take part in and benefit from the Institute’s activities, services, means, networks and exceptional reputation. Indeed, all activities in the field of administrative sciences at the international level pass by the IIAS.

As a reminder, all IIAS members participate in the General Assembly. The States, international organizations, and National Sections have a seat on the Council of Administration and have the right to vote. Their delegates may be elected to diverse IIAS functions. As members, they also participate in both the financial management of IIAS and the formulation of its scientific programmes.

IIAS Permanent Administrative Services

Giancarlo Vilella, Director General

Scientific Affairs
- Catherine Humblet, Managing Editor of IRAS
- Cécile Poupard, Research and Publications Assistant
- Catherine Coninckx, Major Meetings

Library and Documentation
- Fernando M. Balsinhas Covas
- Monique Recloux

Administrative Affairs

- Danièle Laurent
- Marina Cruysmans
- Hafida El Ouaghlí

Accountancy
- Ann Delasalle

Specialized Associations
- Catherine Coninckx, Executive Secretary, IASIA & EGPA

Translation
- Gail Darge

Recent and Selected Books

La gestion de la réforme du secteur public: Une étude comparative des expériences de divers pays en matière de gestion de programmes de réforme des institutions administratives du gouvernement central, sous la direction de Joan Corkery, Turia Ould Daddah, Colm O Nuallain et Tony Land. IISA-ECDPM. (Distribution: IISA / IIAS) 1998. 1400 BEF.


La couverture médicale dans la fonction publique internationale, sous la direction de Alain Plantey (Distribution: IISA). 1998, 224 pp. 800 BEF.


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Harry Willekens

The Latest in Comparative Family Law

This article reviews three important recent publications on comparative family law. These publications highlight new developments regarding the organisation of parental responsibility, divorce law, the recognition of the homosexual couple and the internationalisation of family law.


The first book is the latest addition to the International Society of Family Law’s series of annual surveys of family law reforms in the world; the second one is a selection of the best papers presented at this Society’s ninth world conference held in Durban, 1997; the third one is a series of essays in honour of one of the world’s most renowned family law comparatists. Altogether, these books contain 102 articles, the bigger part of which are concerned with recent innovations and trends in family law all around the world.

Some of the most interesting essays in the Meulders-Klein reader and in The Changing Family deal with philosophical, sociological, historical or political questions, but I will, for the purposes of this newsletter, concentrate on the contributions focusing on recent developments in the law, and especially on those reviewing developments in Europe. Reviewing the many contributions in these readers, covering several dozen of the world’s and the majority of Europe’s legal systems, one can conclude that important developments are under way in the following respects:

1. As a result of the growth in divorce and cohabitation rates and, to a lesser extent, of the emergence of consciously chosen single motherhood, more and more situations develop where the facts regarding the care for children do not any longer (or did at no time) correspond to the legal tie between parent and child as established at the time of birth. Many children live together with only one parent (or even step-parent), or in a „reconstituted“ family consisting of their parent, their step-parent, the children of both and possibly the step-children these adults have brought with them from a former relationship. Until lately, most national laws took no account of this phenomenon and withheld all parental rights and most parental duties from step-parents, with the result that the children living together, presumably under similar factual conditions, in a „reconstituted“ household had different legal statuses vis-à-vis the adults caring for them. Recent law reforms have reacted, in somewhat contradictory ways, to the new realities. On the one hand, they have introduced the principle of joint custody of the original parents upon divorce or separation (Döfffel, P. (ed.), Kindschaftsrecht im Wandel, Tübingen, Mohr, 1994; Forder, C., An Undutable Family Law: Partnership, Parenthood, Social Parenthood, Names and Some Article 8 ECHR Case Law, in International Survey of Family Law 1997, 259-307; Frank, R., Parentage Law Reformed, in International Survey of Family Law 1997, 167-182; Heyvaert, A., Het personen- en gezinsrechtrecht ont(?)kleed, Ghent, Mys & Bresch, 1995; Théry, I., Le démariage, Paris, Odile Jacob, 1996) and somewhat strengthened the position of the absent parent. Hence, the step-parent’s position has been weakened even more (only to some extent, for the introduction of joint custody has rather had the nature of a symholical step and does not give the parent who does not share a household with the child the possibility to intervene in the day-to-day decisions of the caring process). On the other hand, in England and Wales and in the Netherlands a notion of „parental responsibility“ has been introduced that allows for the attribution of (some) parental rights and duties to those actually caring for the child (Eekelaar, J. and Maclean, M., The Parental Obligation, Oxford, Hart, 1997; Forder, C., l.c.). In many countries, the law of parent-child relations, as witnessed by a large number of the contributions to these collections of essays, appears to be in turmoil: the subject of an ongoing and virulent debate, in which some stress the children’s rights, others the need for child protection, the laws are continuously being changed (op.: in the Meulders-Klein collection: Carpi, F., La protection des biens des mineurs: les orientations et l’évolution de la Cour constitutionnelle en Italie, 21-30; Coester-Waltjen, D., Einige Aspekte der Reform des Deutschen Kindschaftsrechts, 31-49; Dalcq Depoorter, J., L’enfant de qui ?, 115-142; Oliveira Leite, E., Le droit (non sacré) de visite, 161-180; Eekelaar, J., Children’s rights: from battle cry to working principle, 197-215; Frank, R., Die neue Rolle des nichtehelichen Vaters nach der Reform des Kindschaftsrechts in Deutschland, 231-253; Freeman, M., Child-rearing: private matter or public concern?, 255-281; Rubellin-Devichi, C., Les grandes réformes en cours dans le droit de la famille en France, 661-696; in The International Survey of Family Law 1997, Lodorup, P., The 1997 Revision of the Norwegian Children Act of 1981, 345-350).

2. Neither has the divorce law reform come to a stop. The rise in the divorce rate, both in countries with very liberal laws and in those (e.g., the Southern European ones, Belgium, Austria) where getting a divorce is still a relatively difficult and lengthy undertaking, gives rise to legal reactions in two opposite directions. On the one hand, it is seen as less and less meaningful to ask the petitioners to give grounds for their wish to divorce; on the other hand, there exists concern about the spread of divorce and about the social implications of divorce for dependent women and especially children. An interesting illustration of how both considera-
tions can play a role in the same reform is to be found in the English-Welsh Family Law Act 1996, which has not yet entered into force. This reform act dispenses totally with any inquiry into the grounds for divorce, and in its radicality has in this respect only been preceded by Swedish law, but nevertheless the new law will make it tougher rather than easier to get a divorce, for it introduces procedural barriers to a swift divorce (cooling off periods) and, as a rule, allows divorce only on the condition that first all the economic consequences of the intended divorce have been decided upon (DOUGLAS, G., „Family Values” to the Fore?, in BAINHAM, A. (ed.), The International Survey of Family Law 1996, the Hague, Nijhoff, 1998, 157-178).

This reform must thus be the first one in decades that actually makes access to divorce more difficult. It is paralleled by the introduction, by a statute of 23 June 1997, into Louisiana law of something like a new institution, „covenant marriage”, enabling people to opt for a second type of marriage in which the grounds for divorce are more restricted than has been the case until now under the liberal Louisiana law. In other U.S. states, the introduction of a „covenant marriage” not providing for divorce at all except in cases of adultery is being discussed (GROSSEN, M., Mariages à choix ? À propos du „covenant marriage” du droit louisianais, in the Meulders-Klein collection, 305-314).

3. There is growing recognition of the homosexual couple in the legal regulation of the family. All the Nordic countries, except for Finland, as well as the Netherlands have created the institution of „registered partnership”, thus enabling homosexual couples who wish to do so to acquire all the rights and duties of spouses, with the sole substantial exception of the rights pertaining to parent-child relations (FORDER, C., i.e.; HELIN, M., Finland. Enforcement of Custody, Access and Residence Orders, Intercountry Adoptions and Registration of Same Sex Couples, in International Survey of Family Law 1997, 153-165; LUND-ANDERSEN, L., Cohabitation and Registered Partnership in Scandinavia – The Legal Position of Homosexuals, in The Changing Family, 397-404). In Belgium, a kind of registered partnership has been created that, though symbolically recognising the legitimacy of the homosexual couple, is of very little practical import, because each party can terminate partnership duties at will without having to give notice (RENCION, J., Mariage, cohabitation légale et union libre, in Meulders-Klein collection, 549-573).

In France, a partial recognition of the legitimacy of the homosexual union has taken the road of social security law and of case law deeming homosexuality an irrelevant element in awarding the surviving cohabitee damages for the loss of consortium and in custody decisions (RUBELLIN-DEVICHI, i.e.).

4. International and supranational law, though still much less concerned with the family than with the harmonisation of the conditions of trade, slowly but surely acquire more importance in family law. This is partly the result of specific international treaties, such as the 1980 Hague International Child Abduction Convention or the 1993 Hague Convention on Protection of Children and Cooperation in Respect of Intercountry Adoption, partly of the rather extensive interpretation the European Court of Human Rights and some national courts, especially in Belgium and the Netherlands (FORDER, C., i.e.), lately also in France (cp. Cour de Cassation, Chambre civile, 6 March 1996, Receuil Dalloz, 1997, 167), give to the right to protect family life, guaranteed by art. 8 of the European Human Rights Convention. 

Although the European Convention leaves a rather wide margin of appreciation to the national authorities in deciding how to regulate family life, the courts, invoking the Convention, have, among other things, banned the discrimination of children born out of wedlock (in the European Court cases of Marckx v. Belgium of 13 June 1979, Johnston v. Ireland of 18 December 1986, and Inzé v. Austria of 28 October 1987) as well as the unmarried mother’s right of veto as to the establishment of her child’s paternity (Belgian Court of Arbitration, 29 December 1990, Rechtskundig Weekblad, 1990-1991, 1232), and drawn limits to the state’s discretion in controlling the exercise of parental authority and in removing children from their parents (e.g., in the European Court cases of Olsson v. Sweden of 27 November 1992 and Hokkanen v. Finland of 23 September 1994). The use of the European convention as a touchstone of the national laws obviously tends to further the convergence of these laws. Still, this effect is fragmentary; there is no master plan behind this development, it is simply pushed forward by the accident of some cases (among the many) reaching the European Court or the national supreme courts. This development is, moreover, uneven, because some countries (e.g., Belgium, the Netherlands, France, Germany) accept the direct applicability of the Convention in the national legal order, or, to put it differently, allow for the possibility of a Convention-based court judgement to overrule national legislation, whereas others (e.g., the United Kingdom) take the position that the Convention only applies indirectly, i.e., that legislation which violates the Convention can only be repealed by the national legislator himself.

The books under review here do not only contain some original essays and interesting reports on the latest developments in legislation and case law, but also several introductory reports that derive their value from the fact that they are among the rare sources available in English on this or that national family law. This holds for reports on family law in Belarus, Croatia, Macedonia, Latvia, Turkey and Greece (in International Survey 1997: BUROVA, S., Regulation of Marriage and Family Relations in Belarus, 45-49; HRABAR, D., Facing Family Violence – A Family Law Answer to the Child’s Protection, 127-135; SPIROVIK-TRPENOVSKA, L., Development of Family Law in Macedonia, 229-240; VEBERS, J., Family Law in Latvia: From Establishment of the Independent State of Latvia in 1918

What, finally, strikes one, looking at the impressive amount of expertise brought together in these three volumes, is how little of the work is truly comparative, rather than just a synthesis, in a foreign language, of developments in one or the other national legal system. This is not so much a shortcoming of the International Survey, which functions in the main as an information channel to keep those interested up to date as to the latest developments in the different national laws, but it is rather a disappointment regarding the two other volumes, which are explicitly comparative in purpose. An outstanding exception, however, is to be found in A. AGELL’s contribution to the Meulders-Klein collection, „The division of property upon divorce from a European perspective“ (1-20). On a few pages, Agell manages to give a synthetic overview of the different types of regulation applicable in Western European countries as to the division of property upon divorce. Starting from a concrete example, he masterfully shows how difficult it is to deduce concrete results from the general principles of the marital property systems involved. One would guess that the economically weaker party would be better off under the system of community of acquisitions applicable in the Romanic legal systems than under the English system of separation of property, but it turns out that this is wholly dependent on the exact figures we are talking about. More generally, from Agell’s overview it emerges that there is only little correspondence between the principles of the marital property system as applicable standing marriage and the economic consequences of divorce: legal systems that treat property as separate during marriage (Germany, England & Wales, the Scandinavian countries, Switzerland) nevertheless divide it upon divorce as though it had been (at least partially) common.

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Harry Willekens gained a degree in law in Belgium and was a lecturer at the universities of Maastricht and Tilburg in The Netherlands. He specialized in family law and the sociology of law. Since 1999 he holds a position as part-time professor for sociology of law at the University of Antwerp. At the moment he is conducting a research project on the historical development of family law in Western Europe from a comparative perspective.
# LS User Group Meeting:

**Using the LS for International Research**

**Institute of Education, 20 Bedford Way, London WC1H 0AL**

**Tuesday 9th November 1999**

## PROVISIONAL PROGRAMME

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<tr>
<td>10.00-10.30</td>
<td>Registration and coffee</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Chair:</strong></td>
<td><em>Professor Heather Joshi, Head of LS User Support Programme</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>10.30-11.15</td>
<td>Introduction to using the LS for international research</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(Rosemary Creeser, LS User Support Team, CLS)</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.15-11.45</td>
<td>The relationship between fertility and longevity in England &amp; Wales and Austria</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(Gabriele Doblhammer, Max Planck Institute for Demographic Research, Rostock, Germany)</td>
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<td>11.45-12.15</td>
<td>Using the LS for monitoring health inequalities in the EU</td>
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<td>(Anton Kunst, Department of Public Health, Erasmus University, Rotterdam)</td>
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<tr>
<td>12.15-12.45</td>
<td>Households and migration in England and Wales and France</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(Ray Hall, Queen Mary &amp; Westfield College, University of London)</td>
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<td>12.45-1.45</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
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<td><strong>Chair:</strong></td>
<td><em>Rosemary Creeser, LS User Support Team</em></td>
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<td>1.45-2.15</td>
<td>Possible uses of the LS and EDP on fertility</td>
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<td>(Michael Rendall, Population Research Institute, Penn State University)</td>
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<td>2.15-2.45</td>
<td>Using the LS to help measure change between 1991 and 2001</td>
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<td>(Phil Rees, ESRC/JISC Workshops on ‘Planning for the 2001 Census’)</td>
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<td>2.45-3.15</td>
<td>What’s new with the LS?</td>
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<td>(Brian Dodgeon, LS User Support Team)</td>
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<td>3.15-4.00</td>
<td>Final discussion</td>
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<td>4.00-4.30</td>
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When Austria joined the EU in 1995, a nation-state, which had been founded in 1918 at the St. Germain peace negotiations and which was formed and accepted by the population mainly in the decades after World War II, entered a supranational state organisation of multinational entities. This was nothing new to the former leading nation of the Habsburg Empire, but those had been very different circumstances. At one time Austria had led the empire which dominated Central Europe, together with France, Prussia and Russia, from the end of the 16th to the end of the “long” 19th century. In 1995 by contrast, Austria, with a population and surface area making up 2% and 2.7% respectively of the EU, is more known for its scenic landscape, its tourist attractions or its famous downhill skiers.

Country and People

Austria is a predominantly mountainous country located in southern Central Europe. Its territory encompasses both the Eastern Alps (which cover some two thirds of its surface area) and the Danube Valley. Austria has a total area of 83,858 square kilometres. The landlocked country shares national borders with the Czech Republic (362 km), Germany (784 km), Hungary (366 km), Italy (430 km), Liechtenstein (35 km), Slovakia (91 km), Slovenia (330 km) and Switzerland (164 km). Austria has historically been a crossroads of travel routes between the major European economic and cultural regions.

The lowlands or hilly regions north, east and south of the Alps and the Danube Valley are the principal areas of settlement and economic activity, i.e. two-thirds of the population live in 40% of the territory. Of the total area, 20% are arable, 29% pasture, 44% forest (Europe’s most heavily wooded country) and 7% are barren. At 3,797 meters, the Grossglockner is the highest mountain in Austria. Its longest river is the Danube, which flows east through Austria for a length of some 350 kilometres. The population of Austria is slightly more than eight million, some 98% of whom are German-speaking. The four ethnic groups officially recognised (Croats, Hungarians, Slovones, Czech/Slovaks) are concentrated in the east and south of the country. Other minorities are the Gypsies (Roma and Sinti) and the Jews. The largest de facto minority in Austria are the foreign workers with their dependents who constitute approximately 10% of the total population.

Seventy-eight percent of those Austrians surveyed in 1991 claimed an allegiance to the Roman Catholic faith, 5% claimed to be Protestants, 4.5% responded with another faith, 9% belong to no religious group, and 3.5% did not respond. This “catholic Austria”, characterised by a close relationship between “throne and altar” before 1918, is largely due to an aggressive Counter-Reformation in the 1600s. Nevertheless, the influence of the Roman Catholic Church, although still formidable because of its historical position in Austrian society and network of lay organisations, receded in the period after 1945. Less than one-third of Catholics attend regular church, rates of divorce and abortion are high and increasing since the 1980s. The relationship between the Austrian catholic laity and their Church and the Vatican have worsened in 1990s.

History

Settlement within the boundaries of present-day Austria extends back to the Early Iron Age (Hallstatt culture). Rich mineral resources gave rise to a prosperous Celtic culture from 400 BC onward. The Celts established a kingdom known as Noricum which was a major trading partner of the neighbouring Roman territories during the first century BC. By 15 BC the Romans had conquered and subsequently incorporated the entire area in the conglomerate Roman Empire and created the three provinces of Raetia, Noricum and Pannonia. The Romans held sway in the Danube region for almost five hundred years. Up to the late eighth century the territory was repeatedly crossed by waves of migrating peoples: German tribes, Huns, Slavic Avars. Towards the end of the eighth century Charlemagne established the Carolingian Mark. Since the departure of the Romans, Irish and Scottish monks had progressively christianised the Alpine region. Entrusted with the administration of Austria in 976, the Bavarian dynasty of the Babenbergs pursued a successful strategy of aggrandisement. In 1156 Austria was declared a Duchy.

In 1282 the Habsburgs - whose origins lay in the Duchy of Swabia - were invested with the Duchy of Austria after the Babenberg dynasty died out. With great dexterity they set about steadily enlarging their power base, acquiring the Duchies of Styria, Carinthia and Tyrol through contracts of succession and then adding Gorizia and Istria (with Trieste) to their territories. Finally, in 1437 Duke Albrecht V became the first Habsburg to wear the imperial crown. The Habsburgs cleverly employed strategic marriages to...
Country Profile: Austria  

Table: Statistical comparisons

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...enlarge their territories (bella gerant alii, tu felix Austria nube!), acquiring Burgundy and the Low Countries in this way, and soon a Habsburg also occupied the Spanish throne. In 1522 the dynasty split into a Spanish and an Austrian line. In 1526 the Austrian Habsburgs added Bohemia and Hungary to their lands.

By reversing the Ottoman thrust into Europe, Austria acquired new territories and emerged as a major European power.

In the second half of the eighteenth century Empress Maria Theresa and her son Joseph II implemented programmes of reform, laying the foundations for a modern state administration. In 1806 Franz II abdicated from the imperial throne. Two years previously he had declared Austria an empire. In the wake of Italy’s emergence as a nation, Austria, and the Habsburg administration was forced to make several concessions to the rapidly burgeon-
The Political System

Austria is a democratic republic. Its head of state (the Federal President) and its legislative organs are elected by the populace. Citizens of Austria have been guaranteed basic rights and freedoms (such as freedom of belief and conscience) since 1867. Austria is a federal republic composed of nine constituent federal states (Burgenland, Carinthia, Lower Austria, Salzburg, Styria, Tyrol, Upper Austria, Vienna and Vorarlberg), each with its own assembly and government. Vienna is also the nation’s capital. Federal legislation is enacted by the two chambers of Parliament: the “Nationalrat” and the “Bundesrat”. The latter chamber represents the interests of the federal states. The state diets exercise the legislative power of the federal states. The 183 deputies in the “Nationalrat” are elected by the populace every four years. The members of the state diets are elected by the population of the federal state concerned. The members of the “Bundesrat” - currently 64 - are nominated by the state diets. The supreme federal executive organs are the Federal President and the members of the Federal Government, headed by the Federal Chancellor, since 1970 a social democrat. The supreme state executive organs are the State Governments, each headed by the State Governor. Since 1945, Austria’s politics and society are largely determined by concordance between the different parties (SPO, ÖVP, FPÖ, LF and Greens) and social partnership between employers and employees/trade unions.

Economy

The Austrian economy might best be characterised as “small but beautiful”. Austria is a small European country in terms of gross domestic product, area, and population. Yet, since the end of World War II, it has achieved a remarkable record of growth, even when international conditions have not been at their most favourable. Austria has done this by concentrating on manufacturing the products of the second industrial revolution - such as high-quality machine tools, chemicals, and other producer goods - and exporting them primarily to the countries of Western Europe, especially Germany. The Austrian system of economic and social consensus, characterised by the term social partnership, has functioned effectively to permit a high standard of living for its citizens and especially for its labour force. The chambers of commerce, and agriculture, and labour, together with the trade unions, have joined and supported a considerable framework of institutions and regulations that make Austria a model for relations between public and private institutions.

Like other industrial societies, Austria found its agricultural and industrial sectors declining as the services sector grew. Whereas services and industry accounted for nearly equal shares of the GDP in 1970, by 1997 industry's share (31.6%) was less than half that of services (66.9%). Agriculture's and forestry's share has declined steadily, so that by 1997, with 1.5%, it was no longer significant economically, but still had social importance.

Employment trends have shifted according to the relative importance of the three sectors. Agriculture's share of employment fell by more than half from 1970 to about 6.6% in 1997. Industry employed about 47% of the work force in the late 1960s and 30.3% in 1997. The service sector employed roughly the same portion of the work force as industry in the late 1960s, but in 1997 it employed 63.1% of the work force.

Services, like agriculture, are usually performed locally and by medium- or small-sized firms. Thus, a listing of Austria’s twenty largest firms in 1991 showed mainly industrial companies.

Most Austrian firms are small. Over half the non-farm labour force is employed by firms with fewer than 100 employees. About 500,000 Austrians worked in medium-sized firms having between 100 and 499 employees, and only 140 firms had more than 1,000 employees.

Macro-economic data attribute to Austria the fourth highest GDP per capita, the second lowest unemployment rate and the lowest inflation rate in the EU. Austria is among the richest countries in the world and the “World Competitiveness Yearbook 1997” ranks Austria first in quality of life.

Demography and Family

The demographic history of Austria corresponds to the general changes that have taken place in other industrial nations, but with a number of regional and historical differences. An increasing life expectancy, a declining fertility rate (or a lower birth rate), and a greater concentration of population in urban areas are trends Austria shares with other advanced industrial nations. The cataclysmic events of World War I and World War II, the substantial population movements - both forced and voluntary - during the inter-war period and after World War II, the influx of foreign workers starting in the 1960s, and the opening of Eastern Europe beginning in the late 1980s all affected the size and structure of Austria’s population.

Between 1900 and 1998, the country's population grew from 6 million to 8 million. War deaths and birth deficits during each of the world wars and the consequences of the Great Depression profoundly influenced the development of Austria's population. Approximately 470,000 were killed in action or as a result of military action during the World Wars, 100,000 (Jewish and non-Jewish Austrian) died in concentration camps or were executed, 200,000 emigrated. These unnatural losses could be balanced by about 650,000 people who immigrated to Austria between 1945 and 1990 and became citizens.

The increase in the birth rate in Austria during the 1950s corresponded with the trends in most other West European countries. Between 1950 and 1997, the infant mortality rate in Austria dropped from over 61.3 per 1,000 live births to 4.7 per 1,000, an indication of improvements Austrian health
authorities had made in prenatal and postnatal care. During the 1960s, Austria experienced an unprecedented population growth related to an increase in births over deaths and a large influx of foreign workers. After the mid-1960s, however, there was a substantial and continuous drop in the fertility and birth rates in Austria, generally referred to as the “pill drop-off”. In 1974 this trend was further influenced by the legalization of abortion during the first trimester of pregnancy. Since the mid-1970s, Austria - after Italy and the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) - has had the third lowest fertility rate in the world: 1.37 children per woman in 1998 (estimated), a rate substantially lower than the replacement rate of 2.09. The overall decline of fertility among Austria’s indigenous population is similar to developments in other advanced industrial nations in Europe.

The decline is caused by a complex set of factors, including the increased use of contraception and abortion, and the increased employment of women outside the home, and changing values and attitudes toward marriage, family, and childbirth.

An increase in immigration and the higher fertility rate of foreign workers account for the greatest part of Austria’s net population growth in the 1990s. The actual average life expectancy at birth is 77.3 years (74.1 for males and 80.7 for females). Like other Western industrialised nations, Austria is confronted with an increasing proportion of senior citizens in the population. At present, the proportion of over-60s in the population is 19.7%; this will increase to 24.5% in 2015 and 33% in 2030. One of the major concerns under these circumstances is the burden placed on the Austrian social security system: to what extent will a constant, or shrinking, labour force be able to maintain an increasing number of pensioners?

Within Austria there are substantial variations in regional patterns of population growth among the indigenous population. Throughout the 1960s and the 1970s, there was a clear “east-west watershed” in population growth. The west had higher rates of fertility, while the east’s lower rates of fertility led to a stagnating or declining population. The economic and social reasons for these patterns of development were complex and included the Soviet occupation of eastern Austria from 1945 to 1955 and the depopulation of regions along the Iron Curtain, the traditionally weak economic infrastructure of predominantly rural areas in eastern and south eastern Austria, and the conservatism and deeply rooted Roman Catholicism of western Austria.

Family Life

In the late nineteenth century, large sections of the Austrian population were effectively excluded from the institutions of marriage and family because they lacked the property and income necessary to participate in them. In Alpine and rural communities, for example, property ownership was a traditional prerequisite for marriage that neither day-labourers nor household servants of land-owning farmers could meet. Among urban and industrial working classes, poverty was so widespread that it made the establishment of independent households and families difficult. During the course of the twentieth century, however, marriage and family have become increasingly common, especially after World War II, when the “economic miracle” brought prosperity to nearly everyone. For the first time in Austrian history, there was almost uniform access to these basic social institutions. Because of this, the post-war period up through the 1960s represented a “golden age” of the family in Austria. More than 90% of the women born between 1935 and 1945 have married - a percentage higher than any generation before or since. The “two child family” was considered an ideal.

Beginning in the 1970s, a number of trends appeared that represented a dramatic change in attitudes toward the ideals of marriage and family. There was a sharp drop in the birth rate and a decrease in family size, accompanied by a greater prevalence of people who never married, people who divorce, single-parent families, cohabiting couples, and marriages without children.

In the early 1990s, fewer Austrian women were bearing children - an estimated 20 to 30% will never have a child - and those who have children are bearing fewer. After the end of the “baby boom” of the early 1960s, the Austrian fertility rate dropped steadily from 2.82 to an all-time low of estimated 1.37 in 1998. Family size has shrunk correspondingly. Marriage without children was twice as common in the 1990s (a third) as in the previous generation, and the number of families having three or more children dropped by more than half (to 10.7%). Families having one or two children accounted for roughly one-third and one-fourth of families respectively in the early 1990s. Large families are most common among farmers, who have a historical and economic tradition of having many children, and among working-class women having little education.

Between 1970 and 1990s, the number of single-parent families increased almost five times faster than the traditional two parent families. Nearly 90% of single parents were women. Some of these single-parent households resulted from women’s conscious choice to bear children without marrying. More often, however, divorce was the cause: more than one-half of single parents were divorced. About one-third of the single parents were unmarried, and about one tenth were widows or widowers.

The frequency of marriage has also declined since the 1960s. Of the women born in the late 1930s, only 8% remained single, compared with an estimated 25% of women born in the 1960s. One reason for the rise in the unmarried population is the increasing number of educated women who have professional and economic alternatives to traditional wife-mother roles. Another reason for the smaller number of marriages is that cohabitation without marriage has become more frequent and socially acceptable.
The declining number of marriages and the delayed marrying age are accompanied by an increased frequency of divorce. The divorce rate in Austria increased from 15% in the early 1960s to more than 33% in the early 1990s. Divorce granted on the basis of “no fault” or mutual consent became legal in Austria in the early 1980s. The divorce rate was highest in Vienna and lowest in Tyrol, an indication that traditional and religious values are least binding in urban areas and more persistent in a traditional Alpine setting. Women who are employed outside of the home and have their own sources of income demonstrate a greater readiness to divorce than “traditional wives”.

Illegitimacy has also become more frequent. Beginning in the 1960s, the percentage of illegitimate births increased steadily, from 11.5% in 1965 to nearly 29% in 1997. For first-born children, the rate was over 33%. These figures reflect tolerant attitudes toward illegitimacy in many regions in the Alps where illegitimate children were a traditional aspect of the Alpine agrarian way of life. Wage-labourers and servants within the households of land owning farmers frequently were unable to marry, but their offspring enjoyed a high degree of social acceptance because illegitimacy was common and provided the landowners with the next generation of labourers. Although the traditional agrarian structure of these regions has changed considerably, the tolerance of illegitimacy remains. In other parts of Austria not having comparable traditions, illegitimate birth is not stigmatised to the same extent as it was earlier. More than half of the illegitimate births in Austria is legalised by marriage, and the great majority of second- and third-born children are legitimate. The fact that the social welfare system provides more extensive benefits for single mothers than for married ones also can be interpreted as a financial incentive for initial illegitimacy in some cases.

### Social Security

The origins of the contemporary Austrian social security system date back to the end of the nineteenth century, when rudimentary forms of social security were introduced for specific occupational groups. The main thrust in the development of the country's social security system in the twentieth century has been the creation of a unified social insurance policy for all occupational groups. The extent of social security coverage and the number of benefits increased in Austria steadily from the end of World War II until the early 1980s. As a result, Austria was among the most highly developed welfare states in the world and had a complicated system of direct taxes on employers and employees and indirect taxes that financed a broad spectrum of benefits.

The welfare measures begin before birth and accompany an Austrian citizen throughout his or her life. Many highly-developed areas of social welfare have been copied by other countries; these include kindergartens, schools, special-needs schools, youth and student hostels, old-age homes, council housing, hospitals, accident prevention and industrial hygiene. Austria's social security legislation encompasses extensive insurance coverage in the event of accident, illness (including surgery), childbirth, spa treatment, unemployment, invalidity, old age and pension payments for surviving dependants.

Every employee in Austria has a legal claim to at least five weeks' paid holiday leave per annum. If an employee falls ill, he or she either continues to be paid full wages/salary or receives sick pay from the social insurance scheme. Mothers may not work eight weeks before and after a birth. Parents are entitled to take two years' maternity leave (from the day of the birth). During this time the parent receives maternity benefits and may not be dismissed from his or her job.

The working day consists of eight hours, the working week of forty hours (spread out over five days wherever possible). Higher wage rates apply to overtime. Child labour is prohibited. Young people, women and mothers enjoy special protection as employees.

A state benefit is payable on the birth of a child. Persons with their domicile in Austria who provide for children are also eligible to receive children’s allowances. After the early 1980s, social policy entered a phase of consolidation characterised by difficulties related to funding extensive social security programs, growing levels of unemployment, stagnating economic growth, increasing budget deficits, and demographics of an ageing population. However, as of 1998, Austria had managed to maintain its high level of social security without major reductions in benefits.

### Education

The “General School Regulations” decreed by Empress Maria Theresa in 1774 laid the cornerstone for Austria's education system. Eight-year compulsory education was introduced in 1869. In modern-day Austria compulsory schooling lasts nine years. The four-year elementary school (ages 6 to 10) is followed by secondary education (in either a “Hauptschule” or the lower classes of an “allgemein bildende höhere Schule”). Pupils who leave school at fourteen can enrol at a Polytechnical Course which prepares them for working life. Apprentices are required to attend a vocational school. The upper segment of secondary education is covered by a range of school types: “allgemein bildende höhere Schulen” providing a general education with the emphasis either on the arts or on sciences, but also vocational schools at various levels. A diploma of completion acquired at one of the above school types entitles the holder to enrol at the 19 universities and colleges. Austria’s school system is governed by uniform regulations nation-wide. No fees are charged for attendance at state-run schools. School text books and travel to and from school are largely free of charge. In the 1996/97 academic year there were 1,181,724 pupils in Austria, in 53,393 school classes and 217,200
students fully enrolled at Austria's universities and art colleges.

Social Data Production

In 1829, a central agency was established for providing official statistics, and it has existed ever since under different names. Since 1945, the name of the re-established agency has been the Austrian Central Statistical Office (Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt, ÖSTAT).

Austrian official statistics consists of the national statistical bureau, the Austrian Central Statistical Office (ÖSTAT) and one regional statistical office in each of the nine Länder. The task of ÖSTAT is to produce federal statistics, which means all statistics which go beyond the particular interest of an individual "Land" and which are of significance to the federal administration or which have to be provided by the Republic of Austria in accordance with obligations under international law directly applicable in Austria. However, the "Länder" and municipalities maintain small independent statistical offices. Special agreements have been concluded between the ÖSTAT and these offices to improve communication and data exchange. These offices use federal statistics for their own purposes, but also produce statistics on their own.

Statistical data collected in ÖSTAT surveys - compiled since the 1990s in ISIS (Integrated Statistical Information System) with online and offline access - form a basis for political and economic decision-making in the public and private sectors and are used for scientific research work, especially in the social sciences. Since Austria's entry in the European Union on 1 January 1995, ÖSTAT's cooperation with EUROSTAT has become even more important than in the previous years. Since 1945, official Austrian statistics are characterised by their economic and social orientation. Not only population censuses were carried out decennially (1951, 1961, 1971, 1981 and 1991), but also the Austrian microcensus and sample surveys on consumption, labour force or housing, etc. were introduced in the 1960s. Mainly since the 1970s, another major field of research of ÖSTAT and research groups outside the office focus on historical statistics.

ÖSTAT is divided into an Administrative Division, a Systems and Methods Division, and eight other divisions covering various fields and sub-fields of statistics. The Austrian Data Processing Register as a separate Federal authority is attached to ÖSTAT.

Related statistical bodies are the Central Statistical Commission (CSC) and Special Advisory Sub-committees. The CSC is chaired by the President of ÖSTAT and is composed of ordinary members (mostly "officials") and extraordinary members (representatives of science, economy and culture). The CSC provides expert advice for the carrying out of complex surveys and acts as a mediator between producers and consumers of statistics. It also suggests priorities for ÖSTAT projects. The special advisory sub-committees (currently numbering 18) are set up to allow small groups of experts to discuss specific statistical problems.

Further Reading


National Statistical Institute:
Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt (OESTAT), Hintere Zollamtsstraße 2b, A-1030 Wien. (+43/1) 7128/7654-7656, Fax: (+43/1) 715 68 28, E-Mail: mail@oestat.gv.at, Internet: http://www.oestat.gv.at/index.htm. Publications are directly available from OESTAT.

Social Science Research Institutions:
Interdisciplinary Centre for Comparative Research in the Social Sciences - International (ICCR), Schottenfeldgasse 69, A-1070 Vienna. (+43 1) 524 13 93-0, Fax: (+43 1) 524 13 93-200, E-mail: office@iccr.co.at, Internet: http://www.iccr.co.at/icc/about.htm. - Institute for Empirical Social Research (IFES), Rainergasse 38, A-1050 Vienna, Austria. ++43 1) 546 70-0, Fax: ++43 1) 546 70-312, E-mail: ifes@ifes.co.at, Internet: http://www.ifes.co.at/english/impressum.html. - Österreichisches Institut für Familienforschung (Austrian Institute for Family Studies), Gonzagagasse 19 / 8, A-1010 Wien. (+43 1) 535 14 54 - 0, Fax: (+43 1) 535 14 55, E-mail: team@oif.ac.at, Internet: http://www.oif.ac.at. - University of Vienna/Department of Economic and Social History, Dr.-Karl Lueger-Ring 1, A-1010 Vienna. 43-1-4277-41301, -41304, Fax: 43-1-4277-9413, E-mail: wirtschaftsgeschichte@univie.ac.at, Internet: http://www.univie.ac.at/Wirtschaftsgeschichte/. - Institut für Wirtschafts- und Sozialgeschichte an der Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien, Augasse 2-6, A-1090 Wien. (+43-1) 313 36 - # 4243 and # 4711, Fax: (+43-1) 313 36-710, E-mail: Renate.Lackner@wu-wien.ac.at, Internet: http://www.wu-wien.ac.at/instit/wsg/. - Forschungsinstitut für Europafragen (Research Institute for European Affairs), Althanstraße 39-45, A-1090 Wien. ++43 / 1 / 31336 - 4133, 4134, 4135, Fax: ++43 / 1 / 31336 - 758 or – 756, E-mail: europafragen@fgr.wu-wien.ac.at, Internet: http://fgr.wu-wien.ac.at/institut/eief/home.htm. - IWE - Forschungsstelle für institutionellen Wandel & europäische Integration (ICE – Research Unit for Institutional Change & European Integration), Postgasse 7/12, A-1010 Wien. ++43 - 1 / 515 81 / 565, Fax: ++43 - 1 / 515 81 / 566, E-mail: iwe@oeaw.ac.at, Internet: http://www.euro.centre.org, E-mail: Internet: http://www.euro.centre.org/causa/ec/. - Institute for Advanced Studies, Stumpergasse 56, A-1060 Vienna. ++43-1-59991-0, Fax.: ++43-1-5970635, E-mail: mitter@ihs.ac.at, Internet: http://www.ihs.ac.at/. - Institute for Human Sciences (Institut für die Wissenschaften vom Menschen, IWM), Spittelauer Lände 3, A-1090 Wien. ++43-1-313 58-0 [or extension], Fax (+43 1) 313 58-30, General E-mail: iwm@iwm.univie.ac.at, Internet: http://www.univie.ac.at/iwm/mp-reach.htm. - Research Institute for European Law / University of Linz, Altenberger Str. 69, A-4020 Linz. ++43 732-2468-414 and 420, Fax: ++43 732 2468 368. - Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (WIIW), Oppolzergasse 6, 1010 Vienna. (43 1) 533 6610, Fax: (43 1) 533 6610-50, E-mail: wiwi@wri.ac.at, Internet: http://www.wiiw.ac.at. - Austrian Institute of Economic Research (WIFO), P.O. Box 91, A-1103 Wien. (++43 1) 798 26 01-0, Fax: (43 1) 798 93 86, E-mail: Christine.Knoll@wifo.ac.at, Internet: http://www.wifo.ac.at. - Institute for Demography / Austrian Academy of Sciences, Hintere Zollamtsstr. 2b, A-1033 Vienna. (++43 1) 712 12 84, Fax: (++43 1) 712 12 84 111, E-mail: ifd@oeaw.ac.at, Internet: http://www.idemog.oeaw.ac.at.

Social Science and Political Journals:


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Hermann Schwenger is documentalist / librarian of the Quellen-Informationsarchiv (QUIA) at the MZES. He is co-author of “Trade Unions of Europe. Structures, Sources and Research. A Reference Book” (forthcoming). As a sideline he is further preparing a thesis on “Consumer Cooperatives in the German Democratic Republic 1945-1952”.

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Recent Books on European Comparative Research


This is the most recent summary publication compiled by the renowned German family policy specialist. The book presents the main features of the German system of family policy. In separate sections on international comparisons, German policy measures are compared with European regulations.


This is one of the few truly comparative studies on institutional regulations of child maintenance after cohabitation or divorce (separation) in ten West European countries. Against a background of rising numbers of lone parents (after family breakdown) child maintenance regimes are analyzed regarding eligibility, financial regulations, level of child maintenance, law enforcement, payment and receipt of maintenance.

European social research: selected new articles


Research Centres in Denmark

The Danish National Institute of Social Research has meanwhile established its own homepage. The institute was founded as early as 1958 and is thus the oldest social research institute in Denmark. The institute concentrates on 4 research units concerned with comparative welfare studies, social policy and marginalisation, children, families and minorities and labour market studies. The SFI collects its own data by carrying out social surveys. In co-operation with Danmarks Statistik it publishes the regular report on living conditions. Specialized and partly recurrent reports are published, covering different aspects of the living conditions of the Danish population, such as the family, children, labour market, etc. Publications are available from the library. The SFI publishes a Danish newsletter, which is available free of charge.

Information: The Danish National Institute of Social Research, Socialforskingsinstituttet (SFI), Herluf Trolles Gade 11. DK-1052 Copenhagen. Phone: +45 3348 0800, Fax: +45 3348 0833, Internet: http://www.sfi.dk/, E-mail: sfi@sfi.dk.

In December 1993, a second research institute for social research was founded, the Centre for Labour Market and Social Research (CLS) at the University of Aarhus and Aarhus School of Business. The CLS makes use of the register data bases constructed by Statistics Denmark in the field of labour market and the welfare state, employment dynamics, behaviour of the firm and wage formation. The main approach are econometric analyses of longitudinal data, model building and simulation. The activities from 1993-1996 are documented in Working Paper 97-01.

Information: Centre for Labour Market and Social Research – CLS, Universitetsparken, Byngving 350, DK-8000 Aarhus C, Denmark. Phone: +45 8942-2350, Fax: +45 8942-2365, Internet: http://www.cls.dk/, E-mail: cls@cls.dk.

Recent Social Reports in Europe

Hungary: In Hungary, the Hungarian Central Statistical Office (KSH) published as early as 1996 a social report on the social situation in Hungary. This is a summary report on recent changes in living conditions on the basis of the statistical material collected by KSH. The KSH has a longer tradition in social statistics and statistical surveys on living conditions (such as time use, family budgets), established well before 1990. During the 1990s, the statistical data collection on living conditions of the population was strongly intensified. The publication, based on this material, presents data and interpretations for the main subjects: population and social stratification; health, education, employment and housing; income, consumption and time use; social participation; social deviations; special population groups (cohabiting partners, one-parent families, the elderly, ethnic groups, gypsies). The report will be published every two years and is the continuation of the Social Report published earlier in cooperation between KSH and TARKI and the Budapest University of Economics.

There is a second series issued by the KSH, “Hungary, 1997” which is also a summary report on trends in living conditions of the population. In addition, it includes economic trends, thereby constituting one example of a socio-economic report.


United Kingdom: The Office for National Statistics (ONS) intends to publish a special journal on social reporting, Social Trends Quarterly. The UK thus follows the example of other countries, such as Canada, Sweden, Norway, Finland, etc. The journal will complete the annual trend report “Social Trends”, the “Population Trends”, the “Labour Market Trends” and the “Social Focus on ...” series. The UK now has a well-established publication system in the field of social reporting.

The “Social Focus on ...” series aims at presenting information on specific social groups, such as children, women, ethnic minorities,
families, the unemployed, women and men. Each social group is covered by a separate report; thus, each “Social Focus” is a special social report, in a way. The social groups selected are such groups as those being at risk or experiencing social disadvantages. The reports bring together all available descriptive statistics in order to present a complete picture of the living conditions of the specific population group.


The Netherlands: The CBS has published since 1997 the Yearbook on Welfare Distribution. This is a very useful publication dealing with the central fields of social welfare, the income, consumption, income and property distribution, poverty and social assistance, etc. of the population and population groups. Data are presented with maps, graphs and tables, accompanied by extensive textual descriptions.

The second new series “Sociaal-Economische Dynamiek” is devoted to the exploitation of data sets with longitudinal information, which have increasingly been created in the last few years, such as the Labour Force Survey, the income panel survey, the socio-economic panel, etc. The articles included deal with topics such as labour market dynamics, geographical mobility, wage mobility, transition from school to work, welfare dynamics, etc.


**Guides and Bibliographies of National Population Censuses**

The Population Research Center (PRC) at the University of Texas in Austin, USA, has collected publications from national population censuses of all countries of the world since the introduction of censuses in the 19th century. The censuses are documented bibliographically and the bibliography is offered online over the Internet. This is the most complete and comprehensive of census publications ever published. The bibliographical material is arranged by continent and country. The Internet address of the PRC is: http://www.prc.utexas.edu/Welcome.html. Postal address: The University of Texas at Austin, Population Research Center, 1800 Main Building, Austin, Texas 78712-1127, Tel: (512) 471-5514, Fax: (512) 471-4886.

From this census library collection several handbooks on population census publications have been published for the main world regions: Latin America and the Caribbean, North America, and Oceania in a first volume; Africa and Asia in a second one. The volume on Europe completes the collection.

The volume on Europe presents information on national censuses country by country. All censuses, starting with the first historical census, are described. As background information the state history is outlined. For the most recent censuses tables and contents are described. A national topic chart gives an overview of published variables and subjects. This volume includes East and West Europe as well as the former USSR; the states with less than 500,000 inhabitants are covered as well as the different parts of the United Kingdom. Very useful for comparative purposes is the section on “International Topic Charts”: this presents the availability of main variables in the national censuses at different time points. Such variables are: age, education, ethnicity, income, etc.


**New Journals**


The Hans-Böckler-Foundation is the German Trade Union Confederation (DGB) organisation for employee codetermination, research and study promotion (http://www.boeckler.de). The editor of the journal is Peter Scherrer (E-mail: Peter.Scherrer@boeckler.de).

The SEER publishes contributions for the countries of the Balkans and of the Mediterranean. Topics dealt with are all social and labour related questions, such as social security, labour relations, employment problems, developments in trade unions, economies in transition, etc.

**Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis**. Volume 1-, 1999-. (3 issues). Editor-in-Chief: Iris Geva-May, University of Haifa, Israel; Co-editor: Laurence E. Lynn Jr., University of Chicago, IL, USA. ISSN 1387-6988. Subscription rate: NLG 450.00/USD 225.00. Visit http://www.wkap.nl/journalhome.htm for up-to-date information, tables of contents and a free sample copy.

The journal addresses issues of public policy and public administration that are explicitly comparative. Policy domains as diverse as immigration, health care, social security, environmental protection, education, public finance, etc., will be included.

European Societies. The Official Journal of the European Sociologi-
The journal is intended to become the "leading forum for sociological discourse on European developments". It will include research notes, review articles and book reviews. The articles in the first issue deal with such topics as multi-ethnic Europe, European families, equal opportunities, intergenerational transfers, social inequality, etc.

Manuscripts should be sent to: Prof. Jutta Allmendinger Ph.D., Ludwig-Maximilians-University, Institute for Sociology, Konradstr. 6, D-80801 Munich, Tel.: +49 89 2180, Fax: +49 m89 2180 2922, E-mail: es.munich@lrz.uni-muenchen.de.

Ordering: Routledge Journals, Subscriptions, PO Box 362, Abingdon, Oxfordshire, OX14 3WB. Tel: +44(0)1235 401060, Fax: +44(0) 1235 401075, E-mail: routledge@carfax.co.uk, Internet: http://journals.routledge.com.

European Journal of Social Security. Edited by Frans Pennings, Associate Professor, Tilburg University, Netherlands; Michael Adler, Professor of Socio-Legal Studies, Edinburgh University, UK; Volume 1-, 1999- (3 issues). ISSN: 1461-6696. Institutional price: £120.00/US$200.00.

This journal is intended to become a source for legal, economic and sociological information on all aspects of social security on the level of the European nations as well as on the European level. Articles will cover all main fields of social security provision, such as old-age and invalidity benefits, provision for the different social risks as sickness, unemployment, etc. Such special social and public policy fields as taxation, migration and family policy will be covered as well.

New MZES Publications

Working Papers

Since the beginning of 1999 all working papers of the MZES are published in one common working paper series (ISSN 1437-8574). The following working papers have been released and can be obtained from the MZES, University of Mannheim, D-68131 Mannheim. Tel. +49-621-292-1885, Fax +49-621-292-1735. Working papers published since 1997 are also available over the Internet and can be downloaded. Internet address: http://www.mzes.uni-mannheim.de/publi2_D.html.


New Books from MZES


This volume contains contributions delivered at a joint meeting of the section on social indicators of the German Sociological Association and the MZES held from 24-25 October 1997 in Mannheim. The book combines two perspectives: social reporting conceived as output-oriented welfare measurement on the one hand, and the description and analysis of the welfare state concerning its institutional configuration and the effects on the living conditions of the population. In the introductory chapter this volume's editors discuss the two concepts of social reporting and welfare state monitoring. The contributions fall into two groups: comparisons of welfare state institutions and individual welfare in Europe; comparative and national analyses of family policy and social states.

Forthcoming Events:


European Research Conferences (EURESCO) of the European Science Foundation in the Social Sciences in 1999:

• Territory, Identity and Politics: Territorial Politics in the New European Order. J. Mitchell (Sheffield), Obernai (near Strasbourg), France, 3-8 September 1999.

• European Societies or European Society? Migrations and Ethnic Relations in Europe. How Relevant is Assimilation?. A. Schizzaretto (Trento), Obernai (near Strasbourg), France, 23-28 September 1999.

Information and application forms: J. Hendekovic, European Science Foundation, Office of European Research Conferences (EURESCO), 1 quai Lezay-Marnésia, F-67080 Strasbourg Cedex, France. Fax: +33(0)388366987, E-mail: euresco@esf.org, Internet: http://www.esf.org/euresco.
2nd INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON QUALITY OF LIFE IN CITIES
21st Century QOL, ICQOLC 2000
8-10 March 2000, Singapore

We are pleased to announce the call for papers for the ICQOLC 2000 conference and hope that you will be able to participate.

For submission of abstracts, please: e-mail (qolnet@nus.edu.sg), fax (65-7755502) or post your abstract to us as soon as possible. Although the closing date is on 1st August, an early submission would be very much appreciated as it will help us in the undertaking of our conference organisation duties. Your abstract should not exceed 250 words in length. Please include your full postal address and fax no. in your submission.

We look forward to your participation in ICQOLC 2000. Dr Foo Tuan Seik, Conference Secretary.

1. DEADLINES
- Deadline for abstract submission: 1 August 1999
- Notification of acceptance: 1 September 1999
- Deadline for paper submission: 1 November 1999
- Conference dates: 8-10 March 2000

2. ORGANISER
The organiser of the conference is the School of Building and Real Estate (SBRE), Faculty of Architecture, Building and Real Estate, National University of Singapore. SBRE is a tertiary institution with concerns in areas such as real estate, construction, urban planning and urban sociology. SBRE was the organiser of the successful 1st INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON QUALITY OF LIFE IN CITIES (4-6 March 1998, Singapore).

Detailed information on the conference can be found in the Web site called QOLNET International, the Internet Resource Centre for urban quality of life studies (http://www.qolnet.nus.edu.sg). The conference brochure (with similar information) is also available and will be sent upon submission of abstract or by request.

3. BACKGROUND OF DELEGATES

4. TOPICS FOR PAPERS
- Theoretical and Methodological Issues, e.g. theoretical models, empirical measurement methods, objective and subjective measures of quality of life, construction of social indicators, ethical issues.
- Aspects of Quality of Life, e.g. environment, transport, housing, employment, wages, safety, public services, family, health, education, recreation, public services, culture, information technology.
- Contemporary Studies and Applications, e.g. QOL studies at city and community levels (developed countries, less developed countries and worldwide), urban lifestyles, rating places, benchmarking and ranking of cities.

5. KEYNOTE SPEAKERS
- QOL in Asia-Pacific Cities (Assoc Prof Lim Lan Yuan, Conference Chairman, ICQOLC 2000 and ICQOLC ’98; President, Asian Planning Schools Association; President, Pacific Rim Council for Urban Development)
- QOL in Third World Cities (Dr Josef Leitmann, Senior Urban Planner, World Bank, Washington, D.C.)
- QOL in European Cities (Dr Robert Rogerson, Director, Quality of Life Research Group, Dept of Geography, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK)
- QOL in North American Cities (Mr Blaine Liner, Director, State Policy Center, The Urban Institute, Washington, D.C.)

6. OTHER CONFERENCE DETAILS
- All conference papers will be refereed by a panel of international referees.
- Awards will be given to the best paper in each of the three categories.
- All papers accepted for presentation will be published in bound conference proceedings.
- Publication of selected papers in international refereed journal and book.
- Conference working language: English.
- Conference venue: Westin Stamford Hotel (5-star hotel).
- Financial assistance to cover costs of participation is not available.
- Conference fee: $800 (US$470) for early registration (before 1 February, 2000) and $900 (US$530) for late registration. If you participate as a Project Collaborator in the QOL Benchmarking Project, there is a 10% discount on the conference registration fee. Check the Web site for details. Usual 50% discount for student participants.
- Accommodation charges: $229 (US$135) per room (single/twin) per night (Westin Stamford Hotel). Other hotels at $155 (US$91), $140 (US$82), $130 (US$76), $88 (US$52) or dormitories $31 (US$18). US$ quotations are approximate only and subject to change.
- Substantial press coverage by the local and international mass media.

7. FOR FURTHER INFO AND SENDING OF PAPER TITLE & ABSTRACT
EURODATA Research Archive

The EURODATA Research Archive is an infrastructural unit of the Mannheim Centre for European Social Research (MZES) at the University of Mannheim (Germany). The archive has two basic objectives which are closely related to each other:

- to provide an adequate data infrastructure for the Centre’s comparative research on European societies and European integration;
- to contribute to the establishment of a European infrastructure for comparative social research.

EURODATA’s work is structured by own medium-term development and three-annual work plans, relating to three areas of activity:

- the systematic and continuous provision of metainformation on official statistics and social science data from the private sector (information archive);
- the development and maintenance of a library with statistical publications from statistical institutes, ministries, para-official institutions and certain intermediary organisations from the private sector (statistics library);
- the provision of computerised information, with a particular focus on the development of an integrated file system with historical time series and institutional information (file archive).

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E-Mail: archiv@mzes.uni-mannheim.de

EURODATA Newsletter

This newsletter is intended to contribute to facilitate data-based comparative research on European societies and polities. It is a product of the EURODATA Research Archive and has three major objectives:

- to disseminate information on the research activities of the Mannheim Centre for European Social Research, with particular emphasis on data-generating cross-national research the archive is involved in;
- to provide information on European data infrastructures and important developments;
- to provide a forum for the exchange of information on ongoing comparative social research on European societies and on European integration.

The newsletter is intended to be an open forum: contributions from other research institutes and individual researchers are always welcome. The EURODATA Newsletter will, as a rule, be divided into eight sections: Feature reports substantive findings from on-going cross-national research. Data Infrastructure reports on data institutions such as data archives, governmental and non-governmental organisations, and covers historical developments and current modes of access to data. Research Institutes presents profiles of research institutions with a cross-national orientation. Research Groups and Projects informs on cooperations and networks in comparative social research on Europe. Computer deals with specific aspects of electronic information processing and the use of electronic networks in comparative research. Country Profile provides background information on individual countries. Noticeboard provides general news including information about new statistics, recent books and studies, conference reports and announcements.

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